DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 313 772 EA 021 405

AUTHOR Muth, Rodney
TITLE Reconceptualizing Training for Educational Administrators and Leaders: Focus on Inquiry. Improving the Preparation of School Administrators, Notes on Reform No. 2.
INSTITUTION National Policy Board for Educational Administration, Charlottesville, VA.
PUB DATE Oct 89
NOTE 26p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Education; *Clinical Experience; *Educational Research; Elementary Secondary Education; *Field Experience Programs; Graduate Study; Higher Education; *Theory Practice Relationship

ABSTRACT

Despite certain challenges to current practice, little attention has been given to the importance of training educational administrators in research as a process of inquiry. In fact, the inquiry process should be at the core of graduate training for all school administrators. The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration specifically recommended that university professors emphasize "theoretical and clinical knowledge, applied research, and supervised practice," but did not specify how such a charge should be addressed. This paper examines some assumptions shaping current university training that may undercut attempts to create truly clinical administrator preparation programs. Among current expectations that impede stronger clinical orientations in university programs are: (1) lack of rigorous training in research, especially applied research; (2) the traditional academic mode of inquiry prevalent in most doctoral programs; (3) the outcomes of inquiry expected by these programs; (4) the institutional rewards and norms for faculty; and (5) the traditional structures of teaching and learning that influence faculty and therefore students. For student-practitioners, traditional research training programs emphasizing theory-building or empirical explanations are probably inappropriate and intellectually disabling. An alternative model recognizing the legitimacy of the practitioner orientation and geared to an experiential, problem-solving process is necessary. Recommendations are given concerning unresolved research training issues. (47 references) (MLH)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED313772

ng eparation hool inistrators

s on Reform

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Terry A. Astuto

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Reconceptualizing Training for Educational Administrators and Leaders: Focus on Inquiry

EA 021 405

A Publication of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration

NOTES
ON
REFORM

No. 2, October 1989

The National Policy Board For Educational Administration

Headquartered at

University of Virginia
Curry School of Education
183 Ruffner Hall
Charlottesville, VA 22903

Reconceptualizing Training for Educational Administrators and Leaders: Focus on Inquiry

Rodney Muth
Wichita State University

NOTES ON REFORM

Notes on Reform is a publication of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration. The purpose of this series is to disseminate information about programs, projects, ideas, or issues related to the improvement of preparation programs for school administrators. Program descriptions, project evaluations, strategies for improvement, research reports, policy proposals, think pieces -- or any other form of information about innovations or proposed program improvements in educational administration -- could be a source of ideas for others interested in reforming our field. Requests should be forwarded to staff headquarters for the National Policy Board: University of Virginia, Curry School of Education, 405 Emmet Street, Charlottesville, VA 22903, attention Terry A. Astuto or Linda C. Winner (Co-Editors), or Deborah A. Polen (Assistant Editor), (804-924-0583).

Reconceptualizing Training
for
Educational Administrators and Leaders:
Focus on Inquiry

Abstract

The report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration recommended that university professors emphasize "theoretical and clinical knowledge, applied research, and supervised practice." This paper examines some of the assumptions shaping current university training that may undercut attempts to create truly clinical programs for administrator training. Among current expectations that impede stronger clinical orientations in university programs are (1) the lack of rigorous training in research, especially applied research, (2) the traditional academic mode of inquiry prevalent in most doctoral programs, (3) the outcomes of inquiry expected by these programs, (4) the institutional rewards and norms for faculty, and (5) the traditional structures of teaching and learning that influence faculty and therefore students.

Rodney Muth
Chair, Personnel Services
College of Education
Wichita State University
Wichita, Kansas 67208

Reconceptualizing Training for Educational Administrators and Leaders: Focus on Inquiry

Though much attention has been paid to recent attacks on the general preparation of educational administrators (Brown, Markus, & Lucas, 1988-89; Heller, Conway & Jacobson, 1988; Griffiths, Stout & Forsyth, 1988a), such concerns are longstanding (cf. Campbell, Fleming, Newell, & Bennion, 1987; Farquhar, 1977; Goldhammer, 1963; Miklos, 1983; Miller, 1963; Silver & Spuck, 1978). Specific criticisms have focused on research in educational administration (Boyan, 1981) and on research by students as well as its modeling by their professors (Haller, 1979). Educational research has come under fire because it addresses simple questions, often far removed from the "real life" of teaching and learning (Dillon, 1983). Further, educational research is regarded by some as "weak in quantitative, analytic modeling, . . . [using] techniques and frameworks that appear more precise than they are" (Schon, 1987, p. 314). Nevertheless, despite these challenges to current practice, relatively little attention has been given to the importance of training educational administrators in research as a process of inquiry. In fact, the process of inquiry--how to ask questions and how to answer them--should be at the core of graduate training for educational administrators. Our student-practitioners need such tools not just to help them perform better on their jobs but also simply to help them do a better job of educating our country's next generation.

Partly in response to concerns about the training of educators and to the rash of national reform reports since 1983, the National Commission on

Excellence in Educational Administration (1987) observed that public schools, professional organizations, universities, and state and federal policy makers all have essential roles in improving the performance of educational administrators. The Commission's report specifically recommended that university professors emphasize "theoretical and clinical knowledge, applied research, and supervised practice" (p. 20). Even though this is one of the more important areas for program reform, the Commission did not specify how we should address such a charge, and thus far relatively little has been done to explore alternatives that would encourage applied research and a clinical orientation.

If we accept the Commission's recommendations and if we wish to change and improve our university training, we might begin by examining some of the assumptions and conditions of research that shape current university programs. These circumstances may themselves undercut attempts to create clinical programs for administrator training (Peper, 1988)--attempts that will require significantly more attention and resources if they are to succeed (Griffiths, Stout & Forsyth, 1988b). Stronger clinical orientations in university programs are impeded by narrow perspectives on inquiry.

Problems of Tradition

We might begin to move toward significant program reform by putting aside arguments about the purposes of research (cf. Howe, 1985; Smith, 1983; Tuthill & Ashton, 1983) and about the relative merits of qualitative or quantitative research (Everhart, 1988; Firestone, 1987; Howe, 1985; Pitner, 1988; Smith, 1983; Smith & Heshusius, 1986; Tatsuoka & Silver, 1988). After all, even if most of the philosophical issues about research were settled agreeably, little would change for students in educational administration until we change the ways in which research and theory are taught. Then, we might

concentrate attention on the processes used to teach about research and the arenas in which training for research takes place. Too often we simply expect students to learn statistics that may be watered down for practitioners (Black & English, 1986) and to study methods often inappropriately applied (Haller, 1979; Schon, 1987). Too often, we isolate research--from other courses, from real data, from practical problems faced by educators, from our students' own experiences in schools--treating research methods as tricky pyrotechnic displays rather than treating research as a mode of thought, as a way of testing and sifting experience, as a means of solving real problems.

Without a turn toward a more professional orientation (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988; Griffiths et al., 1988b), little will happen to assist our student-practitioners to experience and internalize inquiry skills which are generalizable and practical. Under present circumstances, we neither model well what our rhetoric argues--closer ties between theory and practice--nor do we train student-practitioners to use research strategies and techniques to solve the wide range of problems they face. Our standard expectations do little to help our students match their modes of inquiry with their problems (Shulman, 1981) and with the types of questions they ask about them (Getzels, 1979). Unfortunately, developing clever, unique, or novel questions is insufficient. Solutions must also be invented, and appropriate strategies must be implemented, evaluated, and continued, modified, or terminated. It is this end, translating sound research strategies into sound practices, that must be addressed in graduate training. Further, we need to provide hands-on experiences with real problems so that student-practitioners can test their learnings under rigorous guidance.

In short, we need to be less concerned about the ephemera of imagined theoretical, scientific, or methodological purity and, as Lieberman suggests (Selections, 1988), much more pragmatic in our relations with practitioners, much less removed from our field colleagues, and much more concerned about payoffs for our student-practitioners in terms of improving their institutional roles and responsibilities and their abilities to recognize, conceptualize, and act on problems. These needs are highlighted by questionable assertions such as Boyan's (1981) that the greater proportion of professors of educational administration are practitioner-oriented simply because a majority of dissertations have practice-oriented subjects. The point is not the subject matter of our--and our students'--research (although subject matter is clearly significant) but the approach to inquiry we take. And here, scientific orientations, albeit weak (Haller, 1979), still rule (Schon, 1987).

> Unlike other professional schools that provide training for practitioners (for example, medicine, law, engineering, architecture), schools of education exhibit no general congruence of opinion about curriculum, standards for promotion and tenure, and allocation of resources. Unfortunately too the commitment by schools of education to train practitioners is not as strong as it is in other professional schools housed within universities. The origin of schools of education in schools of arts and sciences is relevant here. Probably because of this heritage, we have adopted the liberal arts model of research and scholarly publication as the more valued professorial activities. (Yarger, Mertens, & Howey, 1985, pp. 106-107)

To enhance our status, we emulate inappropriate models while we overlook society's need for high-quality professional educators. Further, we fail to

allocate resources to achieve either a true arts and sciences program or a true professional orientation, thus leaving no one satisfied with the results. Instead of trying to have it both ways and accomplishing little, we need to reconceptualize our research training so that the process of inquiry becomes central while field-based improvement (Klausmeier, 1982) becomes an important objective.

The Inefficacy of Graduate Training

Arguments about the quality and efficacy of graduate training abound. Recent studies simply reinforce what we have all heard: graduate course work in educational administration does not provide the kind of experiences or knowledge that practitioners feel they need. Heller, Conway, and Jacobson's (1988) study reports that whereas central office administrators were more positive about the value of their training in research (perhaps because of their unique vantage point) principals at all levels were less enthusiastic about their research training. Also, large numbers of respondents indicated that their graduate training was insufficiently rigorous. They further reported that their on-the-job learning was considerably more beneficial than their graduate experiences. The respondents in this survey additionally said that their important mentors were colleagues in the field, not their university professors. In fact, few thought that their professors had had any impact on their careers. In general, the study found that administrators considered their graduate training impractical and "not well linked with the real world" (p. 19).

Related conclusions were reached in a sample of elementary and secondary principals in exemplary schools (Brown et al., 1988-89). This study found that research was the only area in which more than half of the respondents indicated that their knowledge and competency were acquired

primarily at the university. Unfortunately, research also was among those skills considered least useful and least well mastered. Methodology and applications of research results were ranked among the least needed competencies. Methodology, applications of research, and testing were ranked among competency areas least mastered by the respondents. One implication of this study may be that research skills are considered less useful to practitioners precisely because they do not feel competent as researchers. Notably, the areas in which these practitioners felt least competent are those on which graduate training supposedly focuses.

A (Not So) New Model

If graduate programs have so far failed to develop research training that is both useful to practitioners and practical for solving problems in their work, then we face a large task. Part of the task involves the decomposition of our expectations for the outcomes of research and our current practices in research training.

Figure 1 presents a simple model of differing expectations for research outcomes. This artificial dichotomy suggests that scientists are more interested in theory building while practitioners are more interested in solving problems. (Here a problem is conceived neutrally, simply indicating a condition that could be changed in some preferred way, not as something wrong. A problem in math, for example, is simply an equation which needs to be solved, and skills at solving such problems are learned, often through repetition.) Since schools of education tend to focus on the scientist model (Schon, 1987), practitioners who do not aspire to meeting university ideals but who aspire to improving practice either adapt or leave. In the intersection of the two approaches is found most research in education. But even here the focus is

too often restricted to the arcane world of statistics rather than the solution of problems with statistics as one tool among many. As a result, such training is viewed as worthless. It is not internalized and used, or used well, much to the detriment of educational practice.

Figure 1

Expectations of Research

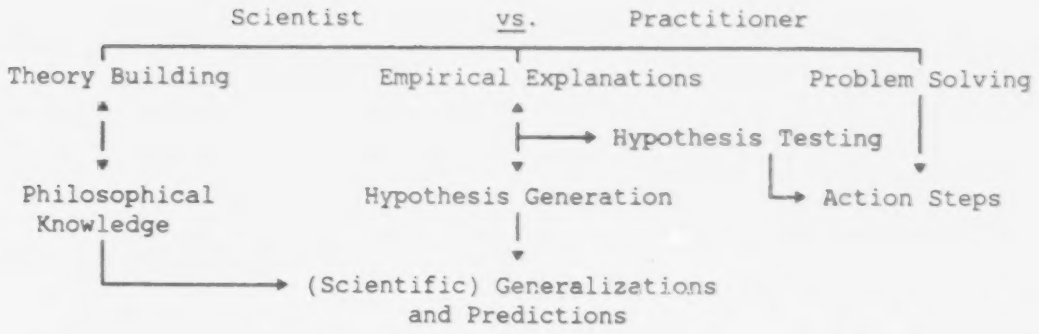


Figure 2 carries these distinctions a bit further, specifying particulars associated with different orientations. Scientists are most likely professors or students aspiring to be professors in top-ranked university programs. They look to the profession as a whole for reference. Their focus is "phenomena" in educational administration, and theory building is the preferred outcome of their research. Practitioner-scientists, on the other hand, look to their home institutions for reference and view the improvement of practice as paramount. They also subscribe, albeit less surely, to the trappings of traditional academic research. In contrast, practitioners are solidly entrenched in the world of practice. Those who hold this orientation and come for university training must adapt to prevailing norms if they want to stay. Should any genuine

practitioners join university faculties, they are unlikely to control either the research agenda--what is in or out substantively or procedurally--or teach major parts of it. In fact, "methods" courses are most often taught by units other than administration within a school of education or by other units within the university altogether. Thus, control of the research process is generally in the hands of those who subscribe to traditional inquiry models which emphasize theory building or empirical explanations. And these instructors teach in universities whose systems reward the fruits of such endeavors.

Figure 2

Orientations for Research

Roles:	Scientist	Practitioner-Scientist	Practitioner
Outcomes:	Theory Building	Practice Improvement	Practice
Orientations:	Phenomena	Problems	Practice
References:	Profession	Institution	Practice

None of these orientations is inherently superior, but problems arise when the methods and goals of one orientation are accepted and presented as universal. Furthermore, the problems are complicated by those who might challenge the status quo but who tend to be complacent about the state of the field (McCarthy, Kuh, Newell, & Iacona, 1988), doing little to question or change their own practices. Assuming that the majority of students passing through doctoral programs in educational administration are--or are preparing to be--practitioners and want to focus on practice issues (Boyan, 1981), the

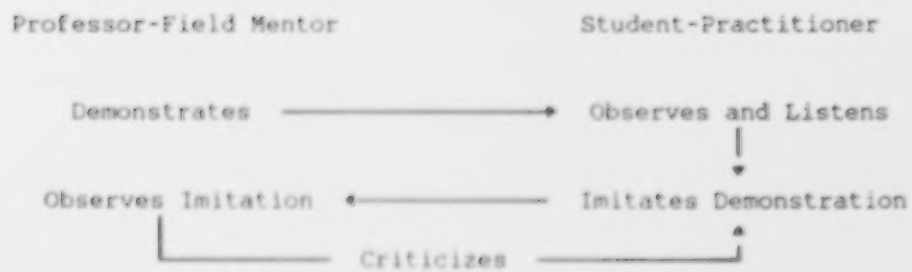
disjunction becomes more apparent between their very real needs and the values upheld by most academic research. As Figures 1 and 2 imply, our students [predominantly current or future practitioners] are generally being prepared to do research that most come to feel is just a means for completing a degree (Haller, 1979). Traditional academic inquiry is simultaneously disconnected from their perceived needs to improve practices in their home institutions and are generally seen as unrelated to the skills they require to become more effective in solving specific and general problems (Brown et al., 1988-89; Heller et al., 1988). For these student-practitioners, traditional research training may be not only inappropriate but also intellectually disabling.

A New Design

To rectify this disjunction, we need to work within our university faculties and with our colleagues in the field to develop an alternative model that recognizes the legitimacy of, and addresses, the practitioner orientation. Such a model should locate the development of needed research skills in the problems and contexts with which practitioners must contend. It should be inquiry-based and field-based, encouraging strong relationships among research professors and field mentors, universities and schools. The model should alter general program design, change university rewards and expectations, and affect our day-to-day modes of teaching and learning. Essential to such a model is the configuration of a clinical experiential, problem-solving process for learning and using research techniques. Figure 3, adapted from Schon (1987), shows one way to conceptualize such a process. Although this conception in isolation is not terribly different from expected instructional activities, its location and products are part of a very different process.

Figure 3

Model for Research Training



Adapted from Schon (1987)

To illustrate, let me relate my early experiences with research. My own introductory research course work was in statistics--a miserable experience in which I continually felt incompetent and was unable to see how memorization and paper-and-pencil tests related to anything that I might need and want to do. Even had I been successful in emulating the professor, I would have found it difficult to ask good questions because this skill was never mentioned. When I started my doctoral work, the focus was still on statistics--all the way to MANOVA--with only peripheral attention paid to how to ask questions and pose problems and how to match research problems with research techniques. Of course, given the exclusive focus on statistics, other research strategies went unmentioned.

Fortunately, my experience in statistics was countered by two other research experiences during my doctoral program. First, I was awarded a research fellowship the summer prior to my quantitative inquiry sequence. Over that summer I serendipitously learned about research techniques--including computers, interviewing, and statistical tests--while constructing and

carrying out a research project with a student-statistician and a research professor. Second, my quantitative inquiry sequence was taught using real data from my summer fellowship. The course required using the mainframe computer (as well as newly learned elementary programming skills), and it persistently raised issues--within the context of quantitative analysis--about framing research questions and hypotheses to fit the problem being investigated. Even though I was preparing for a career in higher education rather than in the field, I was still only beginning to learn what researchers, particularly practitioner-researchers, need to know.

Of course, my initial experience with research was not unique, and too many students still continue to be subjected to artificial, classroom courses in what passes for research. Despite my good fortune in working on a research project and taking a well-designed quantitative inquiry sequence, very little experience with actual research procedures is available to most students. And most, like me, wait for such experiences until their doctoral programs, and even then they rarely engage in research activities until they do their dissertations, an experience often removed from field-related problems by several levels of abstraction.

Just as Glaser (1987) suggests that we should develop elementary and secondary school students as "expert novices," so too should we develop expert novices among educators who may not be knowledgeable in an area but who "know how to go about gaining that knowledge" (p. 5), who think critically (Brookfield, 1987; Meyers, 1986), who not only question standard practices but question their mentors and themselves. To achieve such generalizable skills, we need to develop active, goal-oriented, data-based research programs (Argyris, Putnam & Smith, 1985) that rely on close, collegial relationships

among professors, students, and field personnel; use the latest computer technology; and have clear payoffs for all parties. Such mutually dependent relationships between universities and schools can provide needed sources of free expertise, counsel, and labor for schools as well as sources of students and laboratory settings for academe. These relationships and the inquiry process itself should become the hub around which all other university-based graduate training activities revolve as practitioners become practitioner-scholars, moving from intuitive to conscious applications of knowledge, from instinctive to technically competent and artful applications of expertise. The common language and skills developed in such programs would be those inquiry, problem finding, problem defining, and problem solving (Immegart & Boyd, 1979).

Two Problematic Analogies

"Clinical" training is often raised as the solution to many of the problems facing graduate programs in educational administration. Precisely what this means is unclear, and when other professional programs are raised as exemplars, they are often challenged as inadequate to the task. The medical model, for instance, even though it is a prime example of clinical training and practice, is rejected because of a seemingly visceral aversion to applying doctor-patient and well-sick dichotomies to training in professional education. Unfortunately, such myopia misses the underlying trainer/trainee relationship and the point of that relationship: diagnosis and therapy. The key to medical training is that doctors are taught to ask questions based on knowledge, recognize symptoms (their trends or indicators), and use hypotheses and appropriate tests to connect probable causes with associated consequences for doing nothing or for taking certain actions. Having made their diagnoses,

doctors prescribe and monitor therapies which are designed to improve matters within a goal-based framework.

Legal training is a second model which may be more like our educational practices than it first seems. Clerking, for example, under the wing of a seasoned professional only indirectly involves law school faculty and usually occurs during the summer months, since most law schools still require full-time attendance. In contrast to this practical experience, excepting moot courts and similar activities, legal research for courses is primarily archival. In this way, legal training seems able to accommodate both practical and academic orientations while inculcating particular inquiry strategies.

Even though neither the medical nor the legal model is perfect, they should not be rejected out of hand. The medical model can be applied as a preventative model, using proactive, anticipatory problem solving as opposed to the reactive methods we know so well. And the legal model is useful for the intensity and practicality of its summer internships and the training that lawyers receive in oral discourse, legal reasoning and research, as well as questioning skills. Both models might help us--academics and field mentors together--to help our students increase their self-awareness and self-confidence to become more able analysts and more thoughtful leaders. As Levine, Barth, and Haskins (1987) point out, "understanding practice is the single most important precondition for improving practice" (p. 160). Training in the skills required to examine educational practices carefully and rigorously could be achieved through partnerships among field mentors, practitioners in training, and skilled field professors who could work easily in both arenas, bridging the different roles, cultures, and problems.

Schon (1987), for one, suggests a pragmatic approach. Tenets of accepted

scientific practice are not always pertinent to field problems and their solutions but "experience in methods of normal science research can be a superb preparation for reflection-in-action." Training should be designed to assist the student-practitioners in "improvising the kinds of inquiry that can work in practice" by enabling student-practitioners to become "attentive to patterns of phenomena, skilled at describing what he (or she) observes, inclined to put forward bold and sometimes radically simplified models of experience, and ingenious in devising tests of them compatible with the constraints of an action setting" (p. 322).

The dialogue between a professor-field mentor and a student-practitioner might be structured as suggested in Figure 3. The focus of attention in this relationship could be a problem's conceptual design, its methodological design, or characteristics of its implementation or evaluation, each phase of which might be tested against the informational or intervention needs of field personnel. In any case, the field problem would be real; it would have consequence for the student-practitioner and for the setting in which the research takes place. Such a model would emphasize "double-loop" instead of "single-loop" learning (Argyris, 1976; Argyris, 1982; Argyris & Schon, 1974; Argyris & Schon, 1978; Schon, 1987) and--in practice--help link the university and the field (Schon, 1987).

Some Unresolved Issues

In order to reform research training for educational administrators, several problems within academe will need resolution. First, even though Schon's (1987) proposals are sound, consensus is still lacking about the purposes of and directions for research training for practitioners. As Lieberman (Selections, 1988) recommended, practical inquiry will have to be

rewarded by schools of education and norms for promotion and tenure will have to recognize field work as legitimate and essential. University-based field personnel cannot be seen as adjuncts to the real program, and field mentors must be provided significant status within the university community. Further, definitions of "load" will need to change to encourage expanded field activities with small groups of student-practitioners. Additionally, small numbers of faculty will have to specialize in field research techniques and will have to work with colleagues to integrate academic content with field research activities.

More attention also will have to be paid to newer, field- and problem-oriented research methods. For example, case study designs focus on well-defined problems or issues (Yin, 1984; Merriam, 1988). Ethnographic analyses assume the preeminence of culture in understanding behaviors and outcomes of group and organizational activities (Fetterman & Pitman, 1986; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Spindler, 1982). Still needed, of course, are broad-based descriptions of actions-in-practice, in-depth analyses of small samples of these actions-in-practice, and hypothesis testing with more controlled examples or with larger samples or populations. These different levels of inquiry can and should be complementary, mutually informing and reinforcing. Through them, students should learn how to ask questions appropriate to the problems they are trying to resolve and to select methods appropriate to their resolution. Conceivably, a clinically-oriented, field-based, research-oriented, long-term "practicum" which parallels a student-practitioner's graduate content courses might become the cornerstone of a truly professional program. Such training for educational administrators could combine technical rationality and competence with "reflective practice" and make the methods of inquiry and

problem solving explicit and visible (Schon, 1987).

Unless we start listening to our own rhetoric about clinical, field-based training programs and move forcefully to design responsive programs that are not only meaningful to student-practitioners but also productive for their schools, all we will have is rhetoric--and precious little action and improvement in what we do.

References

Argyris, C. (1976). Single-loop and double-loop models in research on decision-making. Administrative Science Quarterly, 21(3), 363-375.

Argyris, C. (1982). Reasoning, learning, and action. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Argyris, C., Putnam, R., & Smith, D. M. (1985). Action science: Concepts, methods, and skills for research and intervention. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Argyris, C., & Schon, D. A. (1974). Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Argyris, C., & Schon, D. A. (1978). Organizational learning. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Black, J. A., & English, F. W. (1986). What they don't tell you in schools of education about school administration. Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing.

Boyan, N. J. (1981). Follow the leader: Commentary on research in educational administration. Educational Researcher, 10(2), 6-13, 21.

Brookfield, S. D. (1987). Developing critical thinkers: Challenging adults to explore alternative ways of thinking and acting. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, G. C., Markus, F. W., & Lucas, S. (1988-89). Acquired administrative competence: A survey of national distinguished principals. National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal, 1(2), 58-66.

Campbell, R. F., Fleming, T., Newell, L. J., & Bennion, J. W. (1987). A history of thought and practice in educational administration. New York: Teachers College Press.

Clifford, G. J., & Guthrie, J. W. (1988). Ed school: A brief for professional education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Dillon, J. T. (1983). The uses of questions in educational research. Educational Researcher, 12(9), 19-24.

Everhart, R. B. (1988). Fieldwork methodology in educational administration. In N. J. Boyan (Ed.), Handbook of research on educational administration (pp. 703-727). A Project of the American Educational Research Association. New York: Longman.

Farquhar, R. (1977). Preparatory programs in educational administration. In L. Cunningham, W. G. Hack, & R. 0. Nystrand (Eds.), Educational administration: The developing decades. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Fetterman, D. M., & Pitman, M. A. (1986). Educational evaluation: Ethnography in theory, practice, and politics. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Firestone, W. A. (1987). Meaning in method: The rhetoric of quantitative and qualitative research. Educational Researcher, 16(7), 16-21.

Getzels, J. (1979). Problem-finding and research in educational administration. In G. L. Immegart & W. L. Boyd (Eds.), Problem-finding in educational administration (pp. 5-22). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Glaser, R. (1987). Teaching expert novices. Educational Researcher, 16(9), 5.

Goetz, J. P., & LeCompte, M. D. (1984). Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Goldhammer, K. (1963). The social sciences and the preparation of educational administrators. Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration.

Griffiths, D. E., Stout, R. T., & Forsyth, P. B. (1988a). Leaders for America's schools: The report and papers of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Griffiths, D. E., Stout, R. T., & Forsyth, P. B. (1988b). The preparation of educational administrators. In D. E. Griffiths, R. T. Stout, & P. B. Forsyth (Eds.), Leaders for America's schools: The report and papers of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Haller, E. (1979). Questionnaires and the dissertation in educational administration. Educational Administration Quarterly, 15(1), 47-66.

Heller, R. W., Conway, J. A., & Jacobson, S. L. (1988, September). Here's your blunt critique of administrator preparation. Executive Educator, 18-21, 30.

Howe, K. R. (1985). Two dogmas of educational research. Educational Researcher, 14(8), 10-18.

Klausmeier, H. J. (1982). A research strategy for educational improvement. Educational Researcher, 11(2), 8-13.

Immegart, G. L., & Boyd, W. L. (1979). Problem-finding in educational administration. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Levine, S. L., Barth, R. S., & Haskins, K. W. (1987). The Harvard Principals' Center: School leaders as adult learners. In J. Murphy & P. Hallinger (Eds.), Approaches to administrative training (pp. 150-163). Albany: State University of New York Press.

McCarthy, M. M., Kuh, G. D., Newell, L. J., & Iacona, C. M. (1988). Under scrutiny: The educational administration professoriate. Tempe, AZ: University Council for Educational Administration.

Merriam, S. B. (1988). Case study research in education: A qualitative approach. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Meyers, C. (1986). Teaching students to think critically: A guide for faculty in all disciplines. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Miklos, E. (1983). Evolution in administrator preparation programs. Educational Administration Quarterly, 19(3), 153-177.

Miller, V. (1963). Common and specialized learnings for educational administrators. Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration.

National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. (1987). Leaders for America's schools: The report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. Tempe, AZ: University Council for Educational Administration.

Peper, J. B. (1988). Clinical education for school superintendents and principals: The missing link. In D. E. Griffiths, R. T. Stout, & P. B. Forsyth (Eds.), Leaders for America's schools: The report and papers of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Pitner, N. J. (1988). The study of administrator effects and effectiveness. In N. J. Boyan (Ed.), Handbook of research on educational administration (pp. 99-122). A Project of the American Educational Research Association. New York: Longman.

Schon, D. A. (1987). Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Selections from talk at Holmes Second Annual Conference, January 29-30. (1988). The Holmes Group Forum, 2(3), 4-7.

Shulman, L. S. (1981). Disciplines of inquiry in education: An overview. Educational Researcher, 10(6), 5-12, 23.

Silver, P. F., & Spuck, D. W. (1978). Preparatory programs for educational administrators in the United States. Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration.

Smith, J. K. (1983). Quantitative versus qualitative research: An attempt to clarify the issue. Educational Researcher, 12(3), 6-13.

Smith, J. K., & Heshusius, L. (1986). Closing down the conversation: The end of the quantitative-qualitative debate among educational inquirers. Educational Researcher, 15(1), 4-12.

Spindler, G. (1982). Doing the ethnography of schooling. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston.

Tatsuoka, M. M., & Silver, P. (1988). Quantitative research methods in educational administration. In N. J. Boyan (Ed.), Handbook of research on educational administration (pp. 677-701). A Project of the American Educational Research Association. New York: Longman.

Tuthill, D., & Ashton, P. (1983). Improving educational research through the development of educational paradigms. Educational Researcher, 12(10), 6-14.

Yarger, S. J., Mertens, S., & Howey, K. R. (1985). Schools of education and programs for continuing professional development. In C. W. Case & W. A. Matthes (Eds.), Colleges of education: Perspectives on their future (pp. 93-113). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Yin, R. K. (1984). Case study research: Design and methods. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

ABOUT THE NATIONAL POLICY BOARD FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The National Policy Board for Educational Administration is representative of practitioners, faculty members, and policy makers in the field of educational administration who are committed to reform in their profession. The Board was officially formed on January 20, 1988.

The National Policy Board consists of representatives from the following ten member organizations:

- American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
- American Association of School Administrators
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
- Association of School Business Officials
- Council of Chief State School Officers
- National Association of Elementary School Principals
- National Association of Secondary School Principals
- National Council of Professors of Educational Administration
- National School Boards Association
- University Council for Educational Administration

The Board's charter outlines three purposes:

(1) To develop, disseminate, and implement professional models for the preparation of educational leaders;

(2) To increase the recruitment and placement of women and minorities in positions of educational leadership; and

(3) To establish a national certifying board for educational administrators.